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its details and emphasizing the value of a thorough study of its documentary sources.

GEORGE B. ADAMS.

The Destruction of the Greek Empire and the Story of the Capture of Constantinople by the Turks. By Edwin Pears. (London: Longmans, Green, and Company. 1903. Pp. xxiv, 476.)

This is a continuation of The Fall of Constantinople: being the Story of the Fourth Crusade by the same author. The narrative begins with a brief account of the Latin Empire, 1204-1261. The second chapter describes the difficulties in reconstructing the Greek Empire. Mr. Pears makes it clear that the Western rulers by their attempts to restore the Latin Empire hindered the development of a strong empire and facilitated the entrance of the Turks into Europe. In Chapters 4, 6, and 9 are traced the dynastic struggles and the political history from 1320 to 1452. Chapter 8 deals with the causes of the decay of the Empire, namely the weakness resulting from sixty years of rule by the Latins, the constant attacks of the Turks, and the depopulation caused by the Black Death. Chapters 3 5, and 7 are devoted to the history of the Turks from their entrance into Asia Minor until 1451. Chapter 10 describes the preparation for the siege by both Christians and Turks, and Chapters 11 to 17 — the best portion of the work — depict with remarkable fidelity the siege and capture. Chapter 18 deals chiefly with the character of Mahomet II., and Chapter 19 with the influence of the disintegration and fall of the Empire on the Renaissance in western Europe. Chapter 20 attempts a summary of the results. There are three topographical appendixes, and one on the influence of religion on Greeks and Moslems respectively. The book is published in attractive form, and is supplied with four illustrations, three maps, and an adequate analytical index.

Since Gibbon wrote his brilliant description of the fall of Constantinople, a large amount of new material has been brought to light, and Pears is the first English writer to use this material. Gibbon deplored the inadequacy of the sources of his information, and especially the lack of Turkish accounts of the siege. Pears's summary of the sources now available that were unknown to Gibbon includes seven valuable accounts by eye-witnesses, namely Critobulus, a Greek officer in the service of Mahomet, the podestà of Pera, just across from Constantinople, the superior of the Franciscan friars at Galata, and four Italians.

In addition, there are eleven other less important sources, including three Turkish, two Slavonic, and one Armenian account. In contrast with this, Gibbon used the writings of only three eye-witnesses and four less important sources. It is evident from this enumeration that Pears is able to supply a wealth of detail impossible to Gibbon, and that his sources are sufficiently numerous to furnish an accurate account, which may be corrected in minor points but is not likely to be altered essentially by the discovery of additional sources.

When we turn to the execution of the work, the verdict must be on the whole favorable. Pears understands and makes clear the importance of the religious questions at issue in the Greek Empire. He criticizes Gibbon justly for the latter's inability to grasp the real meaning of the struggles for and against union with the Western church. This is of course due to Gibbon's whole attitude towards religious matters. Pears's book the obstinate devotion to their faith, which characterized the Greeks, is depicted, with both its good and evil consequences. matter of topography Pears is thoroughly at home, and is inclined to be conservative. Long residence at Constantinople and careful study have fitted him to speak with authority. In using his sources he has been very diligent, even more so than would appear from a cursory examination of the authorities which he cites in his notes. On the other hand, his style is far removed from the brilliancy of Gibbon. In some places his conscientious narrative is dull reading. When he reaches the siege, the interest increases, but one still feels the absence of the master hand with the dramatic instinct. We fail to realize that we are viewing the disastrous end of the greatest empire the world has known.

Some minor criticisms may be added. His work is not well articulated; his chapters do not always form logical unities. It would be possible, in some instances, to add a few pages from one to the preceding or to the following chapter with equal fitness. Some lapses in historical criticism are noticeable. In the preface he says: "Even in the case of Sir John Maundeville, I have quoted him without hinting that a doubt of his very existence has been uttered. Whether he lived and was or was not a traveller, or whether his book was, as has been suggested, a kind of mediæval Murray's Guide, does not in the least affect the statements which I have reproduced from it." Yet on page 54 he writes, "Maundeville, who visited Palestine in 1322"; on page 55, "Maundeville in Syria met Christians from Prester John's country"; and he has equally positive statements about Maundeville in other places.

There is a confusion of dates: on page 36 he attributes the Sicilian Vespers to March, 1282; on page 41, to 1283. This may be due to careless proof-reading; but the same can hardly be said of the statement, "In 1258, the year before the recapture of Constantinople and the destruction of the Latin Empire by the Greeks" (p. 53).

His account of the early history of the Turks is inaccurate. On page 97 he has a curious note: "This was in 1097, when, on the invitation of Godfrey de Bouillon, Alexis had reached the city on its water side by taking his boats, in part at least, overland from the Gulf of Moudania to the lake. The object of Godfrey was to prevent the Crusaders' being exposed to the demoralisation of plundering a hostile city." He evidently believed (wrongly) that Godfrey was the leader of the Crusaders. His explanation of Godfrey's object is ludicrous to one who is familiar with the motives of the leaders of the First Crusade.

But these errors can easily be corrected in a second edition; to push them farther would be unjust; for this book is a real contribution to historical knowledge, and will probably long remain a standard account of the capture of Constantinople.

D. C. Munro.

A History of Modern Europe. By Merrick Whitcomb. [Twentieth Century Text-books.] (New York: D. Appleton and Company. 1903. Pp. xii, 361.)

THE author of this work states in his preface that it differs from the majority of school histories in laying greater emphasis upon the contemporary period. Accordingly considerably more than half the book is devoted to the French Revolution and the nineteenth century. The development of the modern nations out of the chaotic material of the middle ages is but briefly sketched, but, as regards the main political elements, is probably sufficiently clear for the purposes of this work.

The chapters on the Renaissance and the Reformation, probably the best in the book, are analytic and descriptive much more than narrative—analytic of movements, forces, and conditions, of causes and results. In considerable measure this is characteristic of the work as a whole. Dates are somewhat less numerous than in most school histories, but there are several places where the inclusion of a date in text or margin could have prevented confusion. Similarly, the use of such terms as "13th Vendemiaire" and "18 Brumaire" without a word of explanation until the pupil stumbles upon a partially explanatory note some pages farther on, and even then not to learn to what dates in our system these Revolutionary dates correspond, is not commendable.

The principal causes of the French Revolution are set forth with considerable clearness, and the progress of the Revolution interestingly though rapidly presented. Of wars and campaigns little is said; it is to political values that attention is chiefly called. It was probably not in the plan of the book to treat the history of England except incidentally; at any rate we find only a few sentences on the English Reformation, a few pages on the English Revolution of the seventeenth century, nothing on the eighteenth century, and a short chapter on the reforms of the nineteenth century, including some account of England's colonial possessions.

It is unfortunate that the interesting government of Germany should be dismissed with so unsatisfactory a statement as the following: "Her political organization differs from that of the states of Western Europe. The Emperor is an autocrat; his will constitutes the policy of the nation; no real parliamentary government exists" (p. 218). The few sentences regarding the formation of the Empire after the Franco-Prussian War, together with the characterization of it, will give a student not merely an inadequate, but a very erroneous conception of what the German Empire really is.

There is a good account of the race-problem in Austria-Hungary. The history ends practically with the formation of the dual monarchy. The history of Germany and Italy, likewise, ends with the completion of